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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SUBSCRIPTION TO UNREASONABLE FAMILY BELIEFS AND ADOLESCENT ADJUSTMENT

BY

KAREN D. WENDEL

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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IN

COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled The Relationship Between Subscription to Unreasonable Family Beliefs and Adolescent Adjustment submitted by Karen D. Wendel in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education in Counseling Psychology.

Peter Calder

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Date: Feb. 12, 1988

ABSTRACT

97 Alberta high school students completed: a) a demographic questionnaire designed to obtain information on selected individual and family characteristics; b) the Family Beliefs Inventory (FBI) (Robin, 1986); and c) the Basic Personality Inventory (BPI) (Jackson, 1986). Data from these three measures were analyzed with regard to the relationship between: a) subscription to unreasonable beliefs regarding parent-adolescent relations (FBI); b) the adolescents' experience of interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral difficulties (BPI); and c) selected individual and family characteristics and the FBI and BPI subscale scores. A significant positive relationship between the extent to which sample adolescents subscribe to unreasonable family beliefs (FBI) and the extent to which they experience interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral difficulties (BPI) was found. A series of One-Way MANOVA's revealed that adolescents who are never and/or rarely allowed to take part in decision-making which affects them subscribe more strongly to the "unreasonable belief" that parental rules and restrictions will ruin the teenage years than do those adolescents who are sometimes and/or often allowed to take part. As well, adolescents who rate the quality of time spent with parent(s) as being "not satisfactory" experience more pervasive sadness, hopelessness, and disinterest in life than those who rate the quality of time as being "good". Results of this study suggest a need for mental health professionals working with distressed adolescents to more closely examine the role of cognitive distortions regarding parent-adolescent relations in adolescent adjustment. In addition, this study indicates that adolescent perceptions of parent-adolescent relations are important when examining adolescent adjustment.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Adolescence is a time of rapid physiological, emotional, and behavioral change often resulting in conflict in the home (Roehling and Robin, 1986). Although recent reviews of literature on parent-adolescent conflict suggest that only in a minority of cases does this conflict reach clinically significant proportions associated with serious adolescent problem behavior (Montemayor,1983), disputes between parents and adolescents have become intertwined with a variety of formal psychiatric problems (Robin, Nayar, and Koepke, 1985).

Despite the fact that researchers such as Conger (l977) have posited that parental hostility, rejection, or neglect consistently occur in the backgrounds of children with a very wide range of problems such as neurotic tendencies and delinquency, research on the influence of child-rearing practices and parent-adolescent relationships is still quite rare and unsystematic (Ziegler and Dusek, l985). An analysis of existing research literature addressing the adolescent phase indicates that a relationship exists between aspects of adolescent adjustment and aspects of the family environment such as perceptions of quality of parenting and parent-adolescent communication (Harris and Howard, 1978; Offer, Ostrov, and Howard,1982).

In addition, some researchers have stressed that the child's perception of family conditions is important in determining their impact on emotional adjustment (Grecas and Schwalbe, 1986; Van Der Veen and Novak, 1971). It is

this author's contention that there may be a mediating cognitive component which needs to be addressed.

Perhaps in recognition of this need are some of the recent trends in family therapy. Roehling and Robin (1986) state that from a behavioral-family systems perspective, distorted thinking regarding parenting and family life is one of the three major factors contributing to family distress. The remaining two factors are problem-solving communication skills deficits and structural or functional problems.

The new intergrationist approach to parent-adolescent relationship problems advocated by Robin, Koepke, and Nayar (1985) blends behavioral and family systems concepts and techniques with cognitive therapeutic components. In so doing, it recognizes the contribution of research which has shown that self-directed information-processing distortions have been implicated in disorders such as depression (Beck, Rush, Shaw, and Emery,1979) , anorexia , and bulimia (Fairburn, 1985; Garner and Bemis, 1985).

Robin et al. (1985) have hypothesized that cognitive distortions in family-conflict are other-directed rather than self-directed, and that the predominant affectual reactions are likely to be anger and rage.

An example provided by Robin et al. (1985) adequately portrays this process:

> ". . . the father who overgeneralizes from a single sexual episode, concluding that his daughter is a prostitute or tramp, is likely to become enraged and have a great deal of difficulty utilizing whatever positive problem solving communication skills are within his repetoire during a family discussion of sexuality. His predictable rigid posture during such a discussion is likely to evoke a reciprocally rigid, oppositional reaction from his daughter, precluding the

possibility of democratic problem solving." (p. 91)

On the basis of his work with parents and adolescents in conflict, Robin (1986) developed the Family Beliefs Inventory (FBI) used in the present study as a measure of unreasonable beliefs regarding parent-adolescent relations. In a validation study of the FBI, Roehling and Robin (1986) found that it adequately discriminated between adolescents from distressed and nondistressed families. As distressed families were defined as those in therapy for parent-adolescent relationship problems in which adolescents were diagnosed with externalizing behavior disorders including adjustment, conduct, or relationship problems, Roehling and Robin (1986) indirectly provided support for the existence of a positive relationship between subscription to unreasonable beliefs regarding parenting and family life and adolescent adjustment problems.

Much of the research which has examined the mediating role of cognitive factors in emotional maladjustment has been based on the work of Albert Ellis (1962), who formulated Rational-Emotive Psychotherapy. Ellis (1962) suggests that human beings usually become emotionally disturbed through acquiring illogical and irrational thoughts, philosophies, or attitudes. Ellis (1977) has postulated the ABC theory, in which he asserts that activating events (A) do not directly elicit or cause emotional consequences (C), but rather, the relationship between activating events and emotional consequences is mediated by the individual's belief system (B). Thus, undesirable emotional consequences (ie. depression) are the result of the individual's irrational beliefs about the activating events.

Although the link between subscription to irrational beliefs and emotional maladjustment has been the focus of a great deal of research with adults, much less has been done with respect to children and adolescents. Some studies have indicated that there is a relationship between subscription to irrational beliefs and emotional adjustment in children and adolescents (Kassinove, Crisci, and Tiegerman, 1977; Sandry, 1974). In addition, some studies have shown that intervention strategies based on Rational-Emotive principles and techniques have been effective in dealing with problems such as test anxiety and low self-concept in adolescents (Haynes, Marx, Martin, Wallace, Merrick, and Einarson, 1983; Cangelosi, Gressard, and Mines, 1980).

In light of findings such as these, as well as those of Roehling and Robin (1986), it would seem important to examine the question of whether a positive relationship exists between the extent to which adolescents subscribe to unreasonable beliefs regarding parent-adolescent relations, and the extent to which adolescents experience interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral problems. Thus, the main purpose of this study was to attempt to explore this question. More explicitly, the purpose of the present study was to attempt to examine adolescent beliefs regarding parent-adolescent relations, as measured by the newly developed Family Beliefs Inventory (FBI) (Robin, 1986), as well as adolescent adjustment, as measured by the Basic Personality Inventory (BPI) (Jackson, 1986).

In addition, this study attempted to explore the relationship between selected individual and family characteristics, the extent to which adolescents subscribe to unreasonable beliefs regarding parent-adolescent relations, as measured by the FBI; and the extent to which adolescents experience

interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral difficulties, as measured by the BPI. The selected individual and family characteristics are as follows: age; sex; family size; birth position; which of the parent(s) live at home; how much time the adolescent would like to spend with parent(s); how the adolescent would rate the quality of time spent with parent(s); how often parent(s) allow the adolescent to take part in decision-making which affects him/her; how often parent(s) attend church; how many hours per week the adolescent spends in a part-time job; how the adolescent would rate his/her average academic performance based on the last report; and whether the adolescent attends school in an urban or rural area.

Practical and Theoretical Implications

The results of the present study could have the following theoretical and practical implications:

I) For those researchers attempting to validate the mediating role of cognitive factors in emotional adjustment, the findings may help to clarify research results which have suggested that the link between irrational beliefs and emotional adjustment is not as clearly applicable to adolescents as it is to adults (Spirito and Erickson, 1977).

2) The results of the present study may indicate a need for more research which examines the mediating role of cognitive distortions regarding parent-adolescent relations in adolescent adjustment problems. For example, despite the fact that most concepts of adolescent depression attach considerable importance to parent-child relationships, the literature does not place explicit focus on the family as a system that may contribute to adolescent depression (Karoly and Steffen,1984).

3) Results of the present study may indicate a need for mental health professionals working with distressed adolescents and their families to incorporate cognitive therapeutic components into their intervention programs.

4) As Rational-Emotive Education programs can be carried out by teachers and school counselors with a minimum amount of training, and have shown promising results with a number of adolescent populations (Haynes et al., 1983), the results of the present study may indicate a need to address the role of cognitive distortions regarding parenting and family life in such programs. This may be particularly important in this time of budget constraint when schools are playing an increasingly important role in terms of prevention and intervention programs.

5) As this is only the second study to employ the FBI (Robin,1986), it may serve to further determine the utility of the FBI as a measure of unreasonable beliefs regarding parent-adolescent relations.

Chapter II

Review of the Literature

In order to address the questions posed in the introduction of this thesis, the relationships that exist among cognitive beliefs, emotional adjustment, and child rearing practices will be discussed. The relevant literature will be discussed under the following subheadings: child rearing practices and adolescent adjustment, and the role of cognitions in emotional adjustment.

Child Rearing Practices and Adolescent Adjustment

Conger (1977) identifies five critical developmental tasks that the adolescent must master to become a competent and healthy young adult:

"1) achievement of independence from parents;
2) adjustment to the physical and psychosexual changes of puberty;
3) development of a system of values and a sense of identity;
4) establishment of effective relationships with peers;
5) preparation for a vocation or career." (p. 220)

Robin and Foster (1984) point out that considerable empirical evidence suggests that a pivotal factor influencing completion of many of the critical tasks of adolescence is the adolescent's ability to function independently from his/her parents. This independence is thought to be critical to the development of a sense of identity (Conger & Petersen, 1984).

Although the achievement of independence and therefore a sense of identity depends on many factors, perhaps the most critical factor is the

relationship that adolescents have and continue to have with their parents (Conger, 1977).

Bosma and Gerrits (1986) studied the relationship between aspects of family functioning and the achievement of identity with a group of 27 adolescents (15 to 19 years of age) and their families. Three family interaction variables were studied: adolescent autonomy, parental attitudes toward adolescent autonomy, and percentage of speaking time of each family member. Identity status of the adolescents was determined by using a semi-structured interview to assess adolescent attitudes in areas such as physical appearance, sex roles, and relationship with friends. Adolescents who have reached firm commitments after a period of exploring possible alternatives (crisis) were classified as identity achievement; adolescents in the moratorium status are intensely involved in exploring alternatives; adolescents in the foreclosure status have established firm commitments without any crisis and finally, adolescents in the identity diffusion status have no commitments and are not trying to develop any. Bosma and Gerrits (1986) found that identity status is related to the family interaction variables in that adolescents in the achievement status are more autonomous, their families show more dialogue, and they are more active in discussions than adolescents in the diffusion status. Families with adolescents in the achievement status also show more dialogue than families with adolescents in the foreclosure status. Adolescents in the diffusion status are less active in family discussions than adolescents in the moratorium status. In addition, adolescents in the moratorium status are more active in discussions than adolescents in the achievement status.

What these results suggest is that the process of individuation and separation characteristic of the adolescent period implies changes in family functioning. The striving for independence during the adolescent phase challenges the family's previous patterns and necessitates greater flexibility which will permit age-appropriate independence. For example, adolescents may desire to play a greater role in making decisions which affect them . Research by Elder (1963) and Conger (1977) suggests that adolescents who come from democratic families where they are allowed to participate in discussing issues relevant to their behavior are more self-confident and independent than those from autocratic families. In addition, permitting age-appropriate independence may involve parents allowing their youths to obtain a part-time job. Mitchell (1975) suggests that part-time work may be very important for adolescent adjustment. He states that ". . . youth involved in worthwhile work are less likely to suffer major psychic trauma, develop chronic drug dependency, or commit suicide." (Mitchell, 1975,p. 26)

Conger (1977) points out that autonomy-control problems wherein parental behaviors involve many restrictions and strict enforcement of demands, foster the inhibition of social behaviors, curiosity, creativity, initiative, and flexibility in approaching intellectual, academic, and practical everyday problems.

Research by Doane, West, Goldstein, Rodnick and Jones (1981) indicates that the more communication deviance there is among individuals in a family, the greater the risk children in those families face developing psychopathology. Conger (1977) states that parental hostility, rejection, or neglect consistently

occur in the backgrounds of children with a very wide range of problems such as neurotic tendencies and delinquency.

Research on the influence of child rearing practices during the adolescent years is still quite rare and unsystematic (Ziegler & Dusek, 1985). Amoroso and Ware (1986) state that research relating home environment variables to adolescent's perceptions of themselves and others is not common. For example, Chartier and Ranieri (1984) point out that despite the fact that most concepts of adolescent depression attach considerable importance to parent-child relationships, the literature does not place explicit focus on the family as a system that may contribute to adolescent depression. However, researchers such as Grecas and Schwalbe (1986) and Olowu (1983), do report findings which suggest that there is a relationship between family variables and adolescent adjustment.

Olowu (1983) in his study of 686 adolescents ranging from 14.9 to 17.0 years, found that adolescent ratings of parents' child-rearing techniques, which include the parents' attitudes towards them, correlated significantly and positively with their scores on a self-concept scale. Olowu (1983) points out that these results support earlier findings by researchers such as Scott (1939), who found that adolescents who come from homes where there is acceptance, mutual confidence, and compatibility between parents and children, were better adjusted, more independent, and thought more positively about themselves.

Grecas and Schwalbe (1986) sampled a total of 128 families, each consisting of a mother, a father, and a child in late adolescence (17 to 19 years of age). They found that adolescents' perceptions of parental control (the degree to which parents attempted to limit their child's autonomy and direct

his/her activities); parental support (parents helping their children, showing affection for them, and expressing approval for their actions); and parental participation (parents spending time with their children and sharing activities with them) are strongly related to adolescent self-esteem. More specifically, they found a positive correlation between boys' perception of parental autonomy granting and self-esteem. Girls' self-esteem was more strongly affected by parental support and participation.

Many of the researchers (Grecas & Schwalbe, 1986; and Olowu, 1983 ; Ausubel, Balthazar, Rosenthal, Blackman, Schpoont & Welkowitz, 1954;) have argued that it is the adolescent's perception of the family environment which is the most critical feature. Jourard and Remy (1955) assert that subjects never deal with reality as such, but with an assumptive reality. The results of their study support the formulation that if a person believes his parents approve of his traits, even though this belief be false, he will tend to approve of his traits as well. Manis (1958) reports that children who perceived themselves as being less like their parents tended to have more emotional problems than did those who perceived themselves as being more like their parents.

Harris and Howard (1978), in their study of 375 female and 417 male adolescents, found that subjects who perceived that their parenting was of below average quality demonstrated an adversarial orientation to adults and their value systems.

Amoroso and Ware (1986) in their study of 480 students, grades 6 through 12, found that the degree of punishment and perceived parental control were negatively related to self-evaluations, suggesting that these factors have the effect of somehow lowering self esteem and generating hostility in

adolescents. In addition, other research (Ziegler & Dusek, l985; Cooper, Holman, & Braithwaite, l983; Litvosky & Dusek, l983; Dickstein & Posner, l978; Van Der Veen & Novak, l971;Medinnus, 1965) reports that children with lower self-esteem and more emotional problems perceive their parents as: l) having lower parental attitudes (positive regard, empathic understanding and genuineness); and 2) being less supportive and colder, rejecting, or neglectful.

Leonardson (1986), in a study of 165 students, grades 9 through 12, also found that adolescents' perceptions of the quality of their home life correlated significantly and positively with a measure of self-concept.

While these studies do not address direction of affect; that is, do negative perceptions of family variables lead to behavior problems and emotional maladjustment in adolescence or vice versa, they do suggest that a positive relationship exists between the way adolescents perceive and interpret parent-adolescent relationships and adolescent adjustment. Thus, adolescent perceptions regarding variables such as amount and quality of time spent with parents may be important to consider.

The Role of Cognitions in Emotional Adjustment

Recent reviews of the literature on parent-adolescent conflict suggest that some conflict with parents appears to be a normal part of family relations (Robin, Koepke and Nayar, 1985). Although only in a minority of the cases does this conflict reach clinically significant proportions associated with serious adolescent problem behavior (Montemayor, 1983), disputes between parents and adolescents have become intertwined with a variety of formal psychiatric problems (Robin et al., 1985).

Adolescents experiencing emotional and behavioral difficulties have been targets of numerous behavioral treatment programs (Plass, 1982). However, generalization to different settings, sustaining treatment effects for long periods of time, and obtaining powerful behavior reinforcers have limited the effectiveness of these programs. As a result, there has been an increasing need for innovative methods. Many researchers and practitioners have begun to examine the role of cognitions in areas such as family conflict and emotional adjustment in general. Robin, Koepke and Nayar (1985) stress that cognitions concerning relationship events may be more important determinants of members' affective reactions than the events themselves.

Much of the recent research and practice which has examined the mediating role of cognitive factors in emotional maladjustment has been based on the work of Albert Ellis. Ellis' theory is based on the central theme that each human being has the capacity to think rationally and irrationally (1962,p.36).

Ellis (1962) advocates that man's psychological problems are primarily due to irrational thinking and habituation which can be minimized by decreasing his distorted perceptions and reorganizing his thinking.

Ellis (1977) conceptualized the interaction of thought and emotion in a model called the ABC theory of Rational-Emotive Therapy (RET). In this model, point A (the activating event) is characterized by the individual's perceiving what is happening in his environment. At point B (the belief system), the individual evaluates how likeable or dislikeable the situation at point A is. At point C (the emotional consequence), the response brought about by the individual's evaluation at point B occurs. According to Ellis and Whiteley (1979), people attribute motives, reasons, and causes to other people, external events, and

internal physical states, according to the belief system that they have about the activating event. When this attribution of meaning is based upon faulty beliefs or expectations about certain situations, then people are likely to experience serious disruptions in their external and internal world (Raimy, 1985). Thus, what an individual tells himself/herself about an external event, to a large degree, determines his/her emotional response. For example, if an individual tells himself/herself that obtaining a failing grade on an English essay is an example of his/her stupidity and evidence of his/her failure as a human being, the possibility exists that he/she will become depressed and emotionally upset. If, however, the individual views a failing grade on a paper as an example of poor work habits or lack of clarity of presentation, then he/she may see his/her performance as a series of mistakes and not a reflection of his/her stupidity, and need not become emotionally upset.

Emotional upset and/or disturbed interpersonal interactions and self-defeating behavior then are seen by Ellis as primarily a result of irrational or illogical interpretations of objective reality.

Ellis (1962) has outlined eleven major irrational beliefs which he considers to be widespread in western civilisation. These eleven irrational beliefs are as follows:

Irrational Idea No. 1: The idea that it is a dire necessity for an adult human being to be loved or approved by virtually every significant other person in his community.

Irrational Idea No. 2: The idea that one should be thoroughly competent, adequate, and achieving in all possible respects if one is to consider oneself worthwhile.

Irrational Idea No. 3: The idea that certain people are bad, wicked, or villainous and that they should be severely blamed and punished for their villainy.

Irrational Idea No. 4: The idea that it is awful and catastrophic when things are not the way one would very much like them to be.

Irrational Idea No. 5: The idea that human happiness is externally caused and that people have little or no ability to control their sorrow and disturbances.

Irrational Idea No. 6: The idea that if something is or may be dangerous or fearsome one should be terribly concerned about it and should keep dwelling on the possibility of its occurring.

Irrational Idea No. 7: The idea that it is easier to avoid than to face certain life difficulties and self-responsibilities.

Irrational Idea No. 8: The idea that one should be dependent on others and needs someone stronger than oneself on whom to rely.

Irrational Idea No. 9: The idea that one's past history is an all-important determiner of one's present behavior and that because something once strongly affected one's life, it should indefinitely have a similar affect.

Irrational Idea No. 10: The idea that one should become quite upset over other people's problems and disturbances.

Irrational Idea No. 11: The idea that there is invariably a right, precise, and perfect solution to human problems and that it is catastrophic if this perfect solution is not found.

Ellis (1962) also believes that individuals who subscribe to these irrational beliefs are poorly adjusted. The hypothesis that irrational beliefs and

emotional adjustment are related has led to a number of empirical investigations with adults.

Rosen and Nelson (l983) report that subjects who verbalized rational self-statements while engaged in a rather frustrating task, did not report as much anxiety as those who concentrate on irrational statements.

Goldfried and Sobocinski (l975) found a positive relationship between irrational thinking and measures of social anxiety, test anxiety, and speech anxiety in college women. The second phase of the study focused on one specific irrational belief, that of the overriding importance of social approval. When asked to imagine themselves in social situations involving rejection by others, the subjects who held this belief reported feeling significantly more anxious and angry than those who did not hold the belief.

Ritchie (l974) reports a positive correlation between irrational beliefs and psychological adjustment in outpatients of a university clinic, college students, and psychiatric students, as measured by the California Psychological Inventory. Eidelson and Epstein (l982) report a significant negative correlation between endorsement of dysfunctional beliefs and marital adjustment in marital couples.

In assessing the relationship between Ellis' (1962) hypothesized irrational beliefs and specific emotions, Chambers (1979) found a significant positive correlation between nine of the ten irrational beliefs and anxiety , depression, and hostility, although no relationship was found to exist between specific irrational beliefs and specific emotions.

Nelson (1977) , in an attempt to identify the particular classes of maladaptive cognitions that characterize depression, found that the strongest

correlates of depression were general irrationality (total score on Irrational Beliefs Test) (Jones,1969), a need to excel in all endeavors in order to feel worthwhile as a person, the idea that it is terrible when things are not the way one would like them to be, obsessive worry about possible misfortunes in the future, and the belief that it is impossible to overcome the influences of past history. Nelson, however, cautioned the generalizability of these findings to the behavior of clinically depressed individuals.

Zwemer and Deffenbacher (1984) found a positive correlation between irrational beliefs and paper and pencil measures of anxiety and anger. They also found that irrational beliefs most characteristic of client-like groups (high anger and anxiety) were personal perfection, anxious overconcern, blame proneness, catastrophizing, and problem avoidance, as measured by the Irrational Beliefs Test (Jones, 1969). Similarly, Himle, Thyer, and Papsdorf (1982) found significant negative correlations between the total score on the Rational Behavior Inventory (Shorkey and Whiteman, 1977) and the anxiety scales used in the study. On the basis of their results, they report that enduring patterns of irrational thinking seem to be associated with enduring levels of anxiety.

Suicidal behavior has also been of interest to researchers examining the role of cognitions in emotional adjustment. Ellis and Ratcliff (1986) sought to determine whether suicide patients differed from other psychiatric patients on measures of attitudes and belief systems of relevance to cognitive therapy. They found that suicidal patients scored significantly higher on the Irrational Beliefs Test than nonsuicidal patients, particularly on the subscale of Emotional Irresponsibility which purports to measure the tendency to see happiness or

unhappiness as a "state of mind" rather than as an inexorable consequence of stressful circumstances. Ellis and Ratcliff (1986) point out that this view - that people are upset by interpretations of events rather than by events themselves - is recognizable as the cornerstone of cognitive therapy.

Smith, Boaz, and Denney (1984) hypothesized that individuals high in the endorsement of irrational beliefs should be more susceptible to the adverse effects of life change than individuals low in the endorsement of such beliefs. Their findings supported this hypothesis.

One can conclude, on the basis of research literature reviewed here, that endorsement of irrational beliefs is associated with a wide variety of types of emotional distress in adults.

Since specific patterns of thoughts have been found to be associated with specific emotions such as anxiety and anger in adults, it is worthwhile to explore whether or not a similar relationship between endorsement of irrational beliefs and emotional adjustment exists with respect to adolescents. However, relatively little research has been conducted on the relationship between irrational beliefs and emotional adjustment in children or adolescents.

Sandry (l974) devised a rationality questionnaire and an adjustment questionnaire which he administered to 122 sixth grade children. He also asked their teachers to fill out a teacher rating form. He found that rationality was positively correlated with adjustment after the relationship with achievement and IQ were statistically removed. He also found that rationality was positively correlated with IQ and achievement and so suggested that rationality is related to the ability to learn and perform in school. No significant gender differences on rationality and/or adjustment were observed.

Maultsby, Knipping & Carpenter (l974) found that in two groups of already disturbed high school students, the treatment group receiving Rational-Emotive instruction differed significantly from the control group in a positive direction on the Rotter Internal-External Scale, Personality Orientation Inventory, and the Maultsby Common Trait Inventory.

In an effort to determine the efficacy of rational-emotive counseling (REC) and self-instruction training (SIT) on test anxious high school students, Haynes, Marx, Martin, Wallace, Merrick, and Einarson (1983) ran three experimental treatment groups: an REC group; a SIT group; and a placebo control group. Results indicate that REC and SIT interventions were more effective than the placebo control group in decreasing anxiety and increasing performance. On the basis of these results, Haynes et al. (1983) suggest that school counselors work with structured curriculum packages developed from cognitive theories of adaptive client change.

Cangelosi, Gressard, and Mines (1980) sought to evaluate the effectiveness of a Rational Thinking group on self-concept in adolescents. Thirty-three adolescent females and three adolescent males were recruited from a primarily middle class high school. Subjects were randomly assigned to a Rational Thinking group (RTG), a Placebo Treatment group (PTG), and a No Treatment group (NTG). Subjects in the RTG met twice a week, one hour per session, for 12 weeks. The primary emphasis of the group was the introduction, development, and practice of cognitive skills. The PTG met for the same amount of time, but the primary emphasis of the group was discussion around such topics as interpersonal communication, relaxation, and trust building. The NTG did not meet or participate as a group during the 12 week period.

The results indicated that the Rational Thinking group experience significantly increased the self concept of the adolescent participants as measured by the Piers-Harris Childrens' Self-Concept Scale. In addition, the Rational Thinking group was effective in increasing scores on the behavior, anxiety, and happiness and satisfaction scales. The authors suggest that their study supports the findings on the use of other cognitive or rational approaches, including Rational-Emotive methods and Reality Therapy methods,with adolescents who theoretically could be formal operational in their cognitive structure.

In an effort to determine the efficacy of Rational -Emotive techniques on special adolescent populations, Omizo, Lo, and Williams (1986) examined the effects of Rational-Emotive Education (REE) program on learning disabled adolescents' self-concept and locus of control perception.

Sixty adolescents, classified as learning disabled, were randomly selected from ten schools in a suburban public school district. The students ranged in age from l4 to l8 years of age. The subjects were randomly assigned to a treatment and control group. Subjects in the treatment group received two REE lessons each week for 6 consecutive weeks. The participants in the control group met and watched National Geographic films. All participants were pretested one week prior to the beginnings of the sessions with the Dimensions of Self-Concept (DOSC) (Michael and Smith, 1977, 1978) and the Rotter Internal-External (IE) Scale (Rotter, 1966). They were posttested with the same measures one week after the final treatment session.

The results of the study indicated that after treatment, the experimental group participants had higher scores on the Aspiration, Leadership, and

Initiative scales, and lower Anxiety scores than did the participants in the control group. The experimental treatment participants also had a more internal locus of control orientation score than did the control group. The authors suggest that these results demonstrate that the REE intervention strategy is an effective approach to helping LD adolescents, and that this is especially valuable because REE sessions can be conducted by school counselors, teachers, psychologists, or social workers with a minimum amount of training.

Kassinove, Crisci and Tiegerman (l977) developed the Idea Inventory to assess irrational thinking in 435 students in grades four to twelve. All children also completed the Junior Eysenck Personality Inventory. There was a general trend toward rejection of irrational ideation with age, and irrational beliefs and neuroticism were positively correlated at each grade level. The authors, however, did not address the question of significant differences in the number or irrational beliefs held among the various grade levels.

Wasserman and Vagrin (1979) attempted to determine the relationship of irrational beliefs to overt behavior in children with emotional and behavioral difficulties. Additional variables were the effects of intelligence and length of exposure to treatment as they related to the endorsement of irrational beliefs and the demonstration of adaptive overt behavior. Twenty-seven children from a community mental health center day treatment program in a low socioeconomic area were studied. The children ranged in age from eight to thirteen years. The children were referred to the program because of emotional and behavioral difficulties which prevented them from attending their regular schools. All of the children were given a thorough psychoeducational evaluation before enrollment

which included measures of intelligence, personality, and academic development.

All of the children received training in RET. The training was based on a manual for elementary school children developed by Knaus (1974) which described the eleven irrational beliefs and the ABC theory of emotional upset. Teaching techniques included lecture, discussion, role playing, and homework assignments. Children received training in small groups which met for three 40-minute sessions per week during the regular school year.

At the end of the school year, the children were administered the Idea Inventory(Kassinove, Crisci, and Tiegerman, 1977), and a measure of behavioral adjustment, the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale (Spivak and Swift, 1967).

The authors concluded that the results provided some support for the use of RET to change the behavior of emotionally disturbed children in that as the endorsement of irrational beliefs decreased, the degree to which the subjects relied upon external factors for guidance decreased. However, the most significant finding was one which indicated that endorsement of irrational beliefs alone would not be significantly predictive of overt adaptive behavior. Only when the ages of the subjects were taken into account was a significant predictive relationship found.

In studying the relationship between irrational beliefs and age, Lee and Hallberg (1979) administered a modification of Ellis' (1962) eleven irrational beliefs questionnaire reformulated for use with younger children (788 children from grades five through thirteen).

The results indicated that younger children showed a higher percentage of endorsement than older children on eight of the eleven irrational beliefs measured, an indication that endorsement of irrational beliefs is a function of age. A mean number of irrational beliefs endorsed by the age groups ranged from 5.31 at grade five to 2.75 at grade thirteen. A regression line fitted to these five data points revealed that decreasing irrationality was an almost perfect linear function of age.

The authors suggested that the practical utility of the investigation would be as an aid in assessing "normal" developmental levels of rationality in age groups similar to those used in the study. They also suggested that counseling programs using RET principles should consider the developmental progression of endorsement of irrational beliefs in treatment programs.

Similarily, a study conducted by Spirito & Erickson (1977) also suggests that endorsement of irrational beliefs is a function of age. Spirito & Erickson (l977) administered the Common Beliefs Survey III, the Neuroticism Scale Questionnaire, and the Behavior Problem Checklist to l84 boys in the seventh, ninth, and twelfth grades. He found that while the younger boys had more irrational beliefs, the older boys were more neurotic and had more evidence of behavior problems. The results of this study suggest that further research investigating the relationship between irrational beliefs and emotional adjustment in adolescence is definitely needed.

Recent trends in family therapy for parent-adolescent conflict also indicate a need for further research in this area. Roehling and Robin (l986) point out that a number of the effective, short term approaches share a common belief that distorted thinking is one of the three major factors contributing variance to family

distress. In spite of this, researchers have rarely examined the role of cognitive factors in parent-adolescent relationship problems.

According to Robin and Foster (1985), and Robin, Koepke, and Nayar (1985), distorted, absolutistic, negative cognitions can elicit hostile emotion, increase reciprocity of negative behavior, and lead to rigid positions on specific issues. This tends to polarize family members during problem-solving discussions and restricts the family's ability to use whatever problem-solving communication skills are already in their repetoire. Hence, Robin and Foster (1985) assert that the belief systems of family members concerning parenting and family life are one important causal factor that determines the family's ability to cope with the adolescent's striving for independence. As such, Robin et al. (1985) have advocated an integrated approach to parent-adolescent relationship problems which blends behavioral and family systems concepts and techniques with cognitive therapeutic components.

Robin and Foster (1985) have culled a tentative list of unreasonable beliefs which predispose parents and adolescents to make rigid, erroneous assumptions about family relations. On the basis of this list, Robin(1986) developed the Family Beliefs Inventory (FBI), a new self-report measure of unreasonable beliefs among parents and adolescents.

To establish the criterion-related validity of the FBI, and test the hypothesis that rigid adherence to extreme beliefs would elicit angry affect, impede problem solving and lead to escalating chains of reciprocally negative communication, Roehling and Robin (1986) administered the Issues Checklist, a measure of specific disputes between parents and adolescents , the Conflict Behavior Questionnaire, which assesses each family member's appraisal of

dyadic communication and conflict, and the FBI to 30 distressed and 30 nondistressed families. Distressed families were defined as those in therapy for parent-adolescent relationship problems in which adolescents were diagnosed with externalizing behavior disorder including adjustment, conduct, or relationship problems. Nondistressed families were defined as those satisfied with their relationships and not in treatment for any problems.

The results of their study provide evidence for the criterion-related validity of the FBI and support the contribution of cognitive factors to parent-adolescent relationship problems. Clinic-referred fathers and adolescents adhered more strongly to unreasonable beliefs concerning ruination, obedience, perfectionism, malicious intent, unfairness, and autonomy than non-referred fathers and adolescents; there were no differences for mothers. High levels of distorted thinking were correlated with negative communication and specific disputes in these families. The results of this investigation also indicated that gender did not have a significant main effect on adolescent subscription to unreasonable beliefs regarding parent-adolescent relations.

Generally, the analysis of the literature suggests that there is a positive relationship between parent-adolescent relationships and adolescent adjustment. Certain researchers, such as Grecas and Schwalbe (l986), have convincingly argued and demonstrated that when the link between parent-adolescent relationships and adolescent adjustment is examined, the most critical feature to consider is the adolescent's perception of those relations. Furthermore, although the research literature investigating the role of cognitive distortions or irrational beliefs in adolescence is not conclusive, there is some evidence to suggest that adolescent perceptions which are based on distorted

beliefs regarding parent-adolescent relations, are related to parent- adolescent relationship problems, and thus to adolescent adjustment. In addition, there is some evidence to suggest that cognitive therapy strategies may be an effective mode of treatment for both normal and disturbed adolescents affected by a variety of adjustment problems.

Given my understanding of the literature, the primary purpose of the present study was to gain insight into the relationship between cognitive distortions regarding parent-adolescent relations, and adolescent adjustment, as measured by the Basic Personality Inventory (Jackson, 1986). In addressing this area, a number of other research questions were generated.

Stated more explicitly, the purpose of the present study was to attempt to answer the following questions:

1) To what degree does a relationship exist between the extent to which adolescents subscribe to the unreasonable beliefs of ruination, unfairness, autonomy, and approval, as measured by the FBI (Robin, 1986), and the extent to which adolescents experience interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral difficulties, as measured by the BPI subscales of hypochondriasis, depression, denial, interpersonal problems, alienation, persecutory ideation, anxiety, thinking disorder, impulse expression, social introversion, self-depreciation, and deviation ?

2) To what extent are the FBI means and standard deviations of the present sample (N=96) comparable to those reported by Roehling and Robin (1986) for a nondistressed sample of adolescents (N=30) in their validation study of the FBI ?

3) To what extent are the BPI means and standard deviations of the present sample (N=96) comparable to those reported by Holden, Reddon, Jackson, and Helmes (1983) for an Alberta high school sample (N=1485) ?

4) To what degree is the extent to which adolescents subscribe to the unreasonable beliefs of ruination, unfairness, autonomy, and approval, as measured by the FBI, related to the following individual and family characteristics: age; sex; family size; birth position; which of the parent(s) live at home; how much time the adolescent would like to spend with parent(s); how the adolescent would rate the quality of time spent with parent(s); how often parent(s) allow the adolescent to take part in decision-making which affects him/her; how often parent(s) attend church; how many hours per week the adolescent spends in a part-time job; how the adolescent would rate his/her average academic performance based on the last report; and whether the adolescent attends school in an urban or rural area ?

5) To what degree is the extent to which adolescents experience interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral difficulties, as measured by the BPI (Jackson, 1986), related to the following individual and family characteristics: age; sex; family size; birth position; which of the parent(s) live at home; how much time the adolescent would like to spend with parent(s);how the adolescent would rate the quality of time spent with parent(s); how often parent(s) allow the adolescent to take part in decision-making which affects him/her; how often the parent(s) attend church; how many hours per week the adolescent spends in a part-time job; how the adolescent would rate his/her average academic performance based on the last report; and whether the adolescent attends school in an urban or rural area ?

CHAPTER III

Methodology

Sample

In order to fulfill the purpose of the present study, a sample consisting of 97 adolescents (51 males and 46 females) ranging from 14 to 17 years of age was surveyed. The subjects were recruited from three high schools in two school divisions selected to represent the urban and rural component of Alberta society.

The urban sample, comprised of 55 subjects (31 males and 24 females), attended a Catholic high school in an suburban center (+15,000 population). The subjects who participated were selected by school administration from a total grade ten population of approximately 200 students. The school administration chose students enrolled in English 10 and English 13 so as to reflect a wide range of scholastic ability.

The rural sample, comprised of 42 subjects (20 males and 22 females), attended high school in a small town. The rural sample was composed of all the grade ten students in two public high schools who were in attendance on the day of testing.

In addition to the sample descriptors of age, sex, and rural or suburban school attendance, additional data was obtained by the demographic questionnaire to further define the research sample. This description follows below:

Family Size

Of the present sample, 6 participants were an only child, 26 were from a two child family, 29 were from a three child family, 18 were from a four child family, and 17 were from a family of five or more children.

Birth Order

Of the present sample, 36 were firstborn children, 28 were middleborn, and 32 were lastborn.

Parents Living in the Home

Of the present sample, 4 participants lived in mother-only homes, 4 lived in father-only homes, 84 lived in two parent homes, and 4 lived in homes where neither parent was present.

Desired Amount of Time to Spend with Parent(s)

Of the present sample, 9 participants expressed a desire to spend "much less" time than presently with parent(s), 31 desired to spend a "little less" time, 55 desired to spend a "little more" time, and 1 desired to spend "a lot" more time with parent(s) than presently.

Quality of Time Spent with Parent(s)

Of the present sample, 11 participants rated the quality of time spent with parent(s) as being "not satisfactory", 28 rated time spent as being "fair", 42 rated time spent as "good", and 15 rated time spent with parent(s) as being "very good".

Participation in Decision-Making

Of the present sample, 6 participants "never" participate in decision-making which affects them, 8 "rarely" participate, 28 "sometimes" participate, 41 "often" participate, and 13 "always" participate.

Parents' Attendance at Church

Of the present sample, 15 participants indicated that their parent(s) "never" attend church, 20 indicated that parent(s) attend "once or twice per year", 15 indicated that parent(s) attend "three or four times per year", 22 indicated that parent(s) attend "once or twice monthly", and 24 indicated that parent(s) attend church "weekly".

Time Spent in a Part-time Job

Of the present sample, 52 participants did not have a part-time job, 17 spend "less than 5 hours per week" in a part-time job, 11 spend " 5 to 10 hours per week", 10 spend "11 to 15 hours per week", and 6 spend "16 or more hours per week" in a part-time job.

Average Academic Performance

Of the present sample, one participant indicated that his/her average academic performance based on the last report was "40% or lower", 5 indicated "4l to 50%", 21 indicated "51 to 60%", 35 indicated "61 to 70%", and 34 indicated that their average academic performance based on the last report was "71% and higher".

All participants were informed that their participation in the study was voluntary, and assured of confidentially of information. All participants, with the

exception of one male rural subject, completed all of the survey instruments. The incomplete survey instrument was discarded.

Method

Three survey instruments were administered to participants from each of the two school districts in classroom settings within an eighty minute period. In each school district one group of subjects was tested in the morning, and another in the afternoon. In each of the four testing situations, the participants were informed about the general aims of the study, and questions concerning the study were answered except where this could interfere with the variables under study.

Prior to administration of the measures, instructions were delivered orally to participants so as to avoid any misinterpretation of the printed instructions accompanying each measure. For each measure, the participants were advised to record their answers on the attached optical score sheets.

Instruments

The questionnaire used in this study (see Appendix A) is comprised of three parts. The first part included a number of questions about selected individual and family characteristics. The second part is the Family Beliefs Inventory (FBI) (Robin, 1986). The third is the Basic Personality Inventory (BPI) (Jackson, 1986). Each of these sections of the questionnaire are described below.

1) Demographic Questionnaire: This questionnaire is composed of eleven multiple-choice questions. The items request general information pertaining to age; sex; number of children in the family; birth position of the adolescent ; which of the parents live at home; how much time the adolescent would like to spend with parent(s); how the adolescent would rate the quality of time spent with parent(s); how often parent(s) allow the adolescent to take part in decision-making which affects him/her; how often parent(s) attend church; how many hours per week the adolescent spends in a part-time job; and how the adolescent would rate his/her average academic performance based on the last report.

2) Family Beliefs Inventory (FBI): The FBI (Robin, l986) is a new self-report measure of unreasonable beliefs regarding parent-adolescent relationships. Parallel versions of the inventory are available for parents and adolescents, although only the adolescent version was utilized in this study. For adolescents, four distorted beliefs are assessed: a) Ruination, the belief that parental rules and restrictions will ruin the teenage years; b) Unfairness, the belief that it is catastrophic when parents treat teenagers unfairly; c) Autonomy, the belief that parents should give adolescents complete freedom to make decisions concerning rules and responsibilities; and d) Approval, the belief that it is catastrophic if parents become angry with adolescents. Each belief is assessed with ten items and is rated on a 7-point Likert scale of agreement. Scores may range from l0 to 70 , with a higher score representing greater adherence to a belief. A total belief score may also be computed by summing scores across the individual scores. The ten items for each belief are linked to ten vignettes

depicting frequent sources of conflict between parents and teenagers, such as curfews. Issues were selected from previous research with young adolescents (Robin & Foster, 1984) that ranked frequently occuring disputes. Each vignette has versions written from the adolescent's point of view. In addition, two statements per vignette representing commonly held realistic beliefs are included to reduce the tendency for participants to fall into a response set (eg. "Parents might occassionally offer advice about an adolescent's choice of friends.").

Roehling and Robin (1986) have supplied information concerning the validity and reliability of the FBI. The results of their validation study provide evidence for the criterion-related validity and internal consistency of the FBI as a measure of cognitive distortions and unreasonable beliefs among parents and adolescents. Alpha coefficients for the adolescent version ranged from .72 to .83.

3) Basic Personality Inventory (BPI): The BPI (Jackson, 1986) is a twelve scale, 240 item, true-false inventory based on a construct oriented measurement rationale (Jackson, 1970, 1971). The BPI represents an attempt to incorporate recent principles of test construction into the measurement of relatively independent measures of psychopathology similar to those that underly the traditional MMPI clinical scales (Jackson, 1970, 1971).

In total there are eleven clinical scales with twenty items each, and one critical item scale-Deviation. Each of the eleven content scales has an equal number of positive and negative exemplars of the construct being measured. The clinical scales are as follows: Hypochondriasis measures preoccupation

with physical complaints and the tendency to somaticize psychological concerns; Depression measures pervasive sadness, hopelessness, and disinterest in life; Denial measures the extent to which an individual is in touch with his/her feelings; Interpersonal Problems measures the ability to relate to others and to accept criticism and direction, in particular from authority figures; Alienation measures the extent to which an individual is alienated from societal values and is part of a delinquent subculture; Persecutory Ideation measures the extent to which an individual trusts others in his/her environment, feels they are supportive and accepts personal responsibility for events which occur rather than externalizing blame; Anxiety measures self-control in both normal and crisis situations; Thinking Disorder measures distractibility and disorganization of thought as it relates to the ability to differentiate reality from daydreams; Impulse Expression measures the ability to think beyond the present and to consider the consequences of actions; Social Introversion measures social interaction skills and the need for the company of others; Self-Depreciation measures the extent to which an individual degrades himself/herself and is unsatisfied with personal achievements and characteristics; and the Deviation scale provides an indication of the extent to which the individual displays unusual/bizarre behaviors. The BPI allows for an objective testing of personality with an adolescent population as it is comprehensible to young persons with a grade five reading level.

There is evidence to suggest that the newly published BPI (Jackson, 1986) is a valid measure of psychopathology. Holden, Reddon, Jackson & Helmes (l983) report that there is a strong association between the theoretical structure of the BPI and its empirical item structure. The study also provides

evidence for the replicability of the item structure across samples drawn from diverse populations, with varying ratios of subjects to variables, and varying psychopathological involvement. Jaffe, Leschied, Sas, Austin, and Smiley (l985) report that their findings demonstrate the ability of the BPI subscales to meaningfully differentiate important psychological variables related to delinquent behavior. In a continuing effort to provide for the construct validity of the BPI, Reddon, Holden, and Jackson (l983) report that the judged desirability and judged frequency of endorsement for the 240 items compares favorably with the results reported for the California Psychological Inventory and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, two widely used measures of personality assessment.

Research Procedures

The research questions addressed in this study are as follows:

l) To what degree does a relationship exist between the extent to which adolescents subscribe to the unreasonable beliefs of ruination, unfairness, autonomy, and approval, as measured by the FBI (Robin, 1986), and the extent to which adolescents experience interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral difficulties, as measured by the BPI (Jackson, 1986) subscales of hypochondriasis, depression, denial, interpersonal problems, alienation, persecutory ideation, anxiety, thinking disorder, impulse expression, social introversion, self-depreciation, and deviation ?

2) To what extent are the FBI means and standard deviations of the present sample (N=96) comparable to those reported by Roehling and Robin (1986) in their validation study of the FBI (N=30 nondistressed adolescents) ?

3) To what extent are the BPI means and standard deviations of the present sample (N=96) comparable to those reported by Holden, Reddon, Jackson, and Helmes (1983) for an Alberta high school sample (N=1485) ?

4) To what degree is the extent to which adolescents subscribe to the unreasonable beliefs of ruination, unfairness, autonomy, an approval, as measured by the FBI (Robin, l986), related to the following individual and family characteristics: age; sex; family size; birth position; which of the parent(s) live at home; how much time the adolescent would like to spend with parent(s); how the adolescent would rate the quality of time spent with parent(s); how often parent(s) allow the adolescent take part in decision-making which affects him/her; how often parent(s) attend church; how many hours per week the adolescent spends in a part-time job; how the adolescent would rate his/her average academic performance based on the last report; and whether the adolescent attends school in a suburban or rural area (as measured by the demographic questionnaire) ?

5) To what degree is the extent to which adolescents experience interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral difficulties, as measured by the BPI (Jackson, l986) subscales, related to the following individual and family characteristics: age; sex; family size; birth position; which of the parent(s)live at home; how much time the adolescent would like to spend with parent(s); how the adolescent would rate the quality of time spent with parent(s); how often parent(s) allow the adolescent to take part in decision-making which affects him/her; how often parent(s) attend church; how many hours per week the adolescent spends in a part-time job; how the adolescent would rate his/her average academic performance based on

the last report; and whether the adolescent attends school in a suburban or rural area (as measured by the demographic questionnaire) ?

Analysis of Data

The present study was based on a within-subject correlational design.

In order to test research question number one, Pearson-product moment correlations were calculated on the FBI and BPI totals, and FBI subscales of ruination, unfairness, autonomy, and approval, and BPI subscales of hyponchondriasis, depression, denial, interpersonal problems, alienation, persecutory ideation, anxiety, thinking disorder, impulse expression, social introversion, self-depreciation, and deviation. One step-wise multiple regression analysis was also performed in order to determine the additive variance accounted for by predictor variables. The criterion variable included in the step-wise regression analysis was the FBI (Robin, 1986) total. The predictor variables were the subscales of the BPI (Jackson, 1986).

In order to test research question number two, means and standard deviations were calculated for the sample. "T" tests for independent samples were then performed to determine if sample FBI means and standard deviations were significantly different from those reported by Roehling and Robin (1986) for a nondistressed adolescent sample. In order to test research question number three, means and standard deviations were calculated for the sample. "T" tests for independent samples were then performed to determine if sample BPI means and standard deviations were significantly different from those reported by Holden et al. (1983) for an Alberta high school sample.

In order to test research question number four, a series of one-way MANOVA's were carried out in order to assess the effects of selected individual and family characteristics on the FBI (Robin, 1986) subscale scores. Raos Approximate F test using the Wilk's lambda procedure was used to test the statistical significance of the difference between group centroids. Following the finding of a significant main effect, post hoc analysis to determine which of the variables was contributing to the overall MANOVA F consisted of Heck's test of simultaneous confidence intervals.

In order to test research question number five, a series of one-way MANOVA's were carried out in order to assess the effects of selected individual and family characteristics on the BPI (Jackson, 1986) subscale scores. Raos Approximate F test using the Wilk's lambda procedure was used to test the statistical significance of the difference between group centroids. Following the finding of a significant main effect, post hoc analysis to determine which of the variables was contributing to the overall MANOVA F consisted of Heck's test of simultaneous confidence intervals.

A probability level of less than five chances in a hundred was deemed necessary in order to reject the statistical hypotheses one through five.

CHAPTER IV

Results

The data accumulated from subjects' responses to the Demographic Questionnaire, the Family Beliefs Inventory (FBI) (Robin, 1986), and the Basic Personality Inventory (BPI) (Jackson, 1986) were subjected to the following statistical analyses: "T" tests for independent sample means, Pearson Product Moment correlations, Step-Wise Multiple Regression, One-Way MANOVA's, and Heck's test.

To assist the reader in interpreting the results, each research question is restated and is followed by the relevant description of statistical analysis, statistical findings and appropriate conclusion.

Research Qestion Number One:

To what extent does a relationship exist between the extent to which adolescents subscribe to the unreasonable beliefs of ruination, unfairness, autonomy, and approval, as measured by the FBI, and the extent to which adolescents experience interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral difficulties, as measured by the BPI subscales of hypochondriasis, depression, denial, interpersonal problems, alienation, persecutory ideation, anxiety, thinking disorder, impulse expression, social introversion, self-depreciation, and deviation?

In order to test this research question Pearson Product Moment correlations were calculated on the FBI and BPI totals, and FBI and BPI

subscales. The Pearson Product Moment correlations on the FBI and BPI totals, and FBI and BPI subscales are provided in Table I.

Table I

Pearson Product Moment Correlations Between FBI and BPI Totals and Subscales
(N=96)

	BPI total	FBI total	Ruin.	Unfair.	Approv.	Auton.
BPI total	1.00	.28**	.32***	.22*	-.16	.32***
FBI total	.28**	1.00	.78***	.81***	.18*	.80***
HYP	.67***	.07	.09	.09	-.12	.11
DEP	.79***	.22*	.27*	.19*	-.25**	.34***
DEN	-.23**	.27**	.26**	.11	.24**	.11
IPS	.66***	.28**	.26**	.28**	-.29**	.43***
ALI	.63***	.18*	.24**	.20*	-.38***	.37***
PID	.75***	.13	.23*	.05	-.06	.12
AXY	.46***	-.11	-.13	-.08	-.02	-.05
THD	.61***	.04	.10	-.04	.08	-.00
IMP	.58***	.04	.00	.18*	-.30***	.19*
SOI	.36***	.24**	.32***	.13	.15	.04
SDP	.62***	.20*	.31***	.08	.06	.09
DEV	.65***	.40***	.33***	.34***	-.04	.40***

***p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05.
HYP=Hypochondriasis; DEP=Depression; DEN=Denial; IPS=Interpersonal Problems; ALI=Alienation; PID=Persecutory Ideation; AXY=Anxiety; THD=Thinking Disorder; IMP=Impulse Expression; SOI=Social Introversion; SDP= Self-depreciation; DEV=Deviation.

On the basis of these results, it is evident that there is a significant positive relationship ($p < .01$) between the extent to which sample adolescents subscribe to unreasonable beliefs regarding parent-adolescent relations, as indicated by the FBI total, and the extent to which adolescents experience interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral difficulties, as indicated by the BPI total.

More specifically, the subscription to unreasonable family beliefs (FBI total) was significantly and positively correlated with the BPI subscales of deviation ($p < .001$), denial, interpersonal problems, social introversion ($p < .01$), and depression, alienation, and self-depreciation ($p < .05$).

The FBI subscale of ruination, which measures the belief that parental rules and restrictions will ruin the teenage years, was significantly and positively correlated with the BPI subscales of social introversion, self-depreciation, deviation ($p < .001$), depression, denial, interpersonal problems, alienation ($p < .01$), and persecutory ideation ($p < .05$).

The FBI subscale of unfairness, which measures the belief that it is catastrophic when parents treat teenagers unfairly, was significantly and positively correlated with the BPI subscales of deviation ($p < .001$), interpersonal problems ($p < .01$), and depression, alienation, and impulse expression ($p < .05$).

The FBI subscale of autonomy, which measures the belief that parents should give adolescents complete freedom to make decisions concerning rules and responsibilities, was significantly and positively correlated with the BPI subscales of depression, interpersonal problems, alienation, deviation ($p < .001$), and impulse expression ($p < .05$).

The FBI subscale of approval, which measures the belief that it is catastrophic if parents become angry with adolescents, was significantly negatively correlated with the BPI subscales of alienation, impulse expression ($p < .001$), depression, denial, and interpersonal problems ($p < .01$),and significantly positively correlated with the BPI subscale of denial ($p < .01$).

To isolate unique contributions of the BPI subscales to subscription to unreasonable beliefs regarding parent-adolescent relations, the individual scale scores of the BPI were entered into a step-wise regression on the FBI total.

Two of the subscales of the BPI were significant predictors (25% of the variance) of the FBI total ($p < .0001$) after the additive effects of each of the subscales was controlled for - Deviation, an indication of the extent to which the individual displays unusual/bizarre behavior, and Denial, the extent to which an individual is in touch with his/her feelings. In addition, the overall model was a significant predictor of the FBI total ($p < .0001$), and accounted for 35% of the variance in the FBI total.

Research Question Number Two:

To what extent are the FBI means and standard deviations of the present sample (N=96) comparable to those reported by Roehling and Robin (1986) for a nondistressed adolescent sample (N=30) in their validation study of the FBI?

In order to test this research question means and standard deviations were calculated for the sample (N=96). "T" tests for independent sample means were then performed to determine if sample FBI means were significantly different from those reported by Roehling and Robin (1986) for an undistressed adolescent sample (N=30).

The means and standard deviations for the research sample (Sample 1) (N=96) and the Roehling and Robin (1986) nondistressed adolescent sample (Sample 2) (N=30) are provided in Table 2.

Table 2

Means and SD's of Sample 1(N=96) & Sample 2 (N=30).

	Sample one		Sample two		
	X	SD	X	SD	df(124)
Ruination	29.84	8.64	29	10	
Unfairness	43.63	9.43	41	8	
Approval	35.00	8.94	38	9	
Autonomy	35.07	10.19	31*	9	
FBI total	143.55	24.38	139	22	

*p < .05

It is evident from the results of "T" tests for independent sample means that the FBI sample means are generally comparable with those reported by Roehling and Robin (1986) for an undistressed adolescent sample. Roehling and Robin (1986) define their undistressed sample as coming from families satisfied with their relationships and not in treatment for any problems.

The sample mean and standard deviation for the subscale of autonomy was the only one which was significantly different ($p < .05$). It would seem that the present sample tended to subscribe more strongly to the "unreasonable belief" that parents should give adolescents complete freedom to make decisions concerning rules and responsibilities.

Research Question Number Three:

To what extent are the BPI means and standard deviations of the present sample (N=96) comparable to those reported by Holden, Reddon, Jackson, and Helmes (1983) for an Alberta high school sample (N=1485)?

In order to test this research question means and standard deviations were calculated for the sample. "T" tests for independent sample means were then performed to determine if sample BPI means were significantly different from those reported by Holden et al. (1983).

The means and standard deviations for the research sample (Sample 1) (N=96) and the Holden et al. (1983) sample (Sample 2) (N=1485) are provided in Table 3.

Table 3
Means and SD's of Sample 1 (N=96) and Sample 2 (N=1485)

	Sample 1 (N=96)		Sample 2 (N=1485)		
	X	SD	X	SD	df(1579)
HYP	6.08	3.62	6.43	3.81	
DEP	4.62	3.70	4.97	3.56	
DEN	5.27	2.86	5.46	2.79	
IPS	10.75	3.59	10.18	3.73	
ALI	5.96	3.32	6.66	3.56	
PID	8.01	3.60	7.37	3.57	
AXY	8.66	3.68	8.30	3.08	
THD	5.34	3.22	5.32	3.39	
IMP	10.35	3.79	10.16	3.87	
SOI	4.47	3.14	4.87	3.62	
SDP	2.68	2.75	3.75	3.02	*
DEV	4.78	2.60	N/A	N/A	

*$p < .05$
HYP=Hypochondriasis; DEP=Depression; DEN=Denial; IPS=Interpersonal Problems; ALI=Alienation; PID=Persecutory Ideation; AXY=Anxiety; THD=Thinking Disorder; IMP=Impulse Expression; SOI=Social Introversion; SDP=Self-depreciation; DEV=Deviation.

It is evident from the results of the "T" tests for independent sample means that the BPI sample means are generally comparable to those reported by

Holden et al. (1983), as the majority are within less than one-quarter of a standard deviation from each other.

The sample mean for the subscale of self-depreciation was significantly ($p < .05$) lower than that reported by Holden et al. (1983), although the difference was only approximately one-third of a standard deviation. Self-depreciation measures the extent to which an individual degrades himself/herself and is unsatisfied with personal achievements and characteristics.

Research Question Number Four:

To what degree is the extent to which adolescents subscribe to the unreasonable beliefs of ruination, unfairness, autonomy, and approval, as measured by the FBI, related to selected individual and family characteristics obtained by the Demographic Questionnaire?

In order to test this research question a series of One-Way MANOVA's were carried out. Raos Approximate F test using Wilk's lambda procedure was used to test the statistical significance of the difference between group centroids. This procedure was preferred over a series of One-Way ANOVA's as it reduces the frequency of a Type I error and the probability of finding a significant difference by chance alone. Following the finding of a significant main effect, post hoc analysis to determine which of the variables was contributing to the overall MANOVA F consisted of Heck's test of simultaneous confidence intervals.

Results reveal that "which of the parent(s) live at home" - one or neither versus both parents - had a significant main effect on the FBI subscale scores ($Lambda=.87$, $F=3.44$, $df=4,91$, $p < .05$). However, Heck's test reveals no significant mean differences for any one group.

Results also indicate that "how much time the adolescent would like to spend with parent(s)" - less than now versus more than now - had a significant main effect on the FBI subscale scores (Lambda=.89, F=2.54, df=4,91, $p < .05$). However, Heck's test reveals no significant mean differences for any one group.

"How often parent(s) allow the adolescent to take part in decision-making which affects him/her" - never and/or rarely versus sometimes, often, and always - had a significant main effect on the FBI subscale scores (Lambda=.72, F=2.65, df=l2,235.8, $p < .01$). Heck's test reveals that subjects who are never and/or rarely allowed to take part in decision-making are significantly different from those who are sometimes and/or often allowed to take part ($p < .05$) on the FBI subscale of ruination. This suggests that those adolescents who are never and/or rarely allowed to take part in decision-making subscribe more strongly to the "unreasonable" belief that parental rules and restrictions will ruin the teenage years than do those adolescents who are sometimes and/or often allowed to take part.

Research Question Number Five:

To what degree is the extent to which adolescents experience interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral difficulties, as measured by the BPI subscales, related to selected individual and family characteristics obtained by the Demographic Questionnaire?

In order to test this research question, a series of One-Way MANOVA's were carried out. The Raos Approximate F test using Wilk's lambda procedure was used to test the statistical significance of the difference between group centroids. Following the finding of a significant main effect, post hoc analysis to

determine which of the variables was contributing to the overall MANOVA F consisted of Heck's test of simultaneous confidence intervals.

Results of the series of One-Way MANOVA's reveals that sex of the adolescent had a significant main effect on BPI subscale scores (Lambda=.66, F=3.56, df=l2,83, p < .001). However, Heck's test did not reveal significant mean differences for any one group.

"How adolescents rate the quality of time spent with parent(s)" - not satisfactory versus fair, good, and very good - had a significant main effect on BPI subscale scores (Lambda=.40, F=2.36, df=36,240.1, p < .0001). Heck's test reveals that adolescents who rate the quality of time spent with parent(s) as being "not satisfactory" are significantly different from those who rate the quality of time as being "good" (p < .05) on the BPI subscale of depression. This suggests that adolescents who are not satisfied with the time spent with parent(s) experience more pervasive sadness, hopelessness, and disinterest in life than those who rate the quality of time spent with parent(s) as being "good".

"How often parent(s) allow the adolescent to take part in decision-making which affects him/her" - never and/or rarely versus sometimes, often, and always - had a significant main effect on the BPI subscale scores (Lambda=.50, F=l.73, df=36,240.1, p < .01). However, Heck's test did not reveal any significant mean differences for any one group.

"How adolescents rate their average academic performance based on the last report" - below 50% versus 51 to 60%, 61 to 70%, and 71% and higher - had a significant main effect on the BPI subscale scores (Lambda=.51, F=1.69, df=36,240.1, p < .01). However, Heck's test did not reveal any significant mean differences for any one group.

CHAPTER V

Summary and Implications

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the extent to which adolescents subscribe to unreasonable beliefs regarding parent-adolescent relations, as measured by the Family Beliefs Inventory (FBI) (Robin, 1986), and the extent to which adolescents experience interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral difficulties, as measured by the Basic Personality Inventory (BPI) (Jackson, 1986). This issue arose in part from the assumptions and methods which constitute the rational-emotive system of psychotherapy formulated by Albert Ellis, and in part from recent trends in family therapy for parent-adolescent conflict (Robin, Nayar, and Koepke, 1985).

The investigation built upon research findings in three main areas. The first is that of researchers who have found that the endorsement of irrational beliefs is associated with a wide variety of types of emotional distress in adults (Rosen and Nelson, 1983; Nelson, 1977; and Goldfried and Sobocinski, 1975), and those who have found some support for the existence of this relationship in children or adolescents (Kassinove, Crisci, and Tiegerman, 1977; Maultsby, Knipping, and Carpenter, 1974; and Sandry, 1974). The second is that of researchers who have found that there is a relationship between family variables, such as adolescent ratings of child-rearing techniques and parental attitudes, and aspects of adolescent adjustment such as self-esteem (Grecas and Schwalbe, 1986; Olowu, 1983; and Van Der Veen and Novak, 1971). The third is the work of Roehling and Robin (1986). They found support for the contribution of cognitive factors to parent-adolescent relationship problems.

Results of the analyses of data indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between the extent to which adolescents subscribe to unreasonable beliefs concerning parent-adolescent relations and the extent to which adolescents experience interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral difficulties. The interpretation of these results is that there was a tendency for adolescents who subscribed more strongly to unreasonable family beliefs (FBI total) to be more likely to display behavior patterns very different from most people's (deviation); lack insight into their feelings and the causes of their behavior (denial); be extremely annoyed by little inconveniences, frustrations or disappointments , and react against discipline and criticism (interpersonal problems); be uncomfortable when around others and prefer asocial activities (social introversion); consider themselves inadequate and may be listless, remote, and preoccupied (depression); depart from the truth and behave in an unethical and untrustworthy manner (alienation); and degrade themselves as being worthless, unpleasant, and undeserving (self-depreciation).

It should be noted that subscription to the individual subscale of ruination, which measures the belief that parental rules and restrictions will ruin the teenage years, was associated with the same interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral difficulties as was the FBI total. The only additional BPI subscale that was significantly positively correlated with ruination was that of persecutory ideation. Thus, there was a tendency for sample adolescents who subscribed to this "unreasonable belief" to be more likely to believe that certain people are against them and are trying to make their lives difficult and unpleasant.

Subscription to the FBI subscales of unfairness and autonomy, which measure, respectively, the belief that it is catastrophic when parents treat

teenagers unfairly and that parents should give adolescents complete freedom to make decisions concerning rules and responsibilities, were significantly positively correlated with the same five BPI subscales of deviation, interpersonal problems, depression, alienation, and impulse expression. The interpretation of this result is that there was a tendency for sample adolescents concerned with independence and the consequences of parental injustice to be more likely to display behavior patterns very different from most people's; be extremely annoyed by little inconveniences, frustrations, or disappointments, and react against criticism and discipline; consider themselves inadequate and may be listless, remote, and preoccupied; depart from the truth and behave in an unethical and untrustworthy manner; and lack the ability to think beyond the present and consider the consequences of their actions.

An examination of data thus far indicates that the BPI subscales of depression, interpersonal problems, alienation, and deviation are significantly positively correlated with the FBI total and the individual belief scales of ruination, unfairness, and autonomy. This may suggest a certain commonality among these beliefs and indicate a need for future studies to investigate whether the individual belief scales are variations on several broad themes or are related but separate dimensions of cognitive content.

The FBI subscale of approval displayed a different association with the BPI than did the other subscales as it is significantly negatively correlated with the BPI subscales of alienation, impulse expression, depression, and interpersonal problems, and significantly positively correlated with the BPI subscale of denial.

These results are somewhat inconsistent in that although there was a tendency for sample adolescents who catastrophize parental disapproval to be generally more accepting of criticism and discipline and capable of responsible behavior, they were also more likely to lack insight into their feelings and the causes of their behavior (denial). A partial explanation for these inconsistent findings may lie in the observation that the approval scale had a considerably lower correlation (r .18, $p < .05$) with the FBI total than did the other belief scales (r .78, .81, .80, $p < .001$). This suggests that the approval scale is not, to the same extent, measuring what the other subscales are.

Roehling and Robin (1986), in their validation study of the FBI, found that Approval failed to discriminate between distressed and nondistressed samples and displayed the lowest internal consistency of the FBI subscales. They suggested that although the approval scale did not prove useful with externalizing behavior-disordered adolescents, it may be more salient with internalizing depressed or anxious adolescents (Roehling and Robin, 1986). The results of this study do not support this supposition. It appears necessary for future studies to further evaluate the approval scale.

The extent to which sample adolescents subscribe to unreasonable beliefs regarding parent-adolescent relations was also analyzed with respect to demographic data collected on the sample. Results indicated that adolescents who are never and/or rarely allowed to take part in decision-making subscribe more strongly to the "unreasonable belief" that parental rules and restrictions will ruin the teenage years than do those adolescents who are sometimes and/or often allowed to take part. This suggests that adolescents' perceptions of their

decision-making role has an impact on the way in which they interpret parental authority.

In light of Sandry's (1977) finding that rationality is positively correlated with achievement, it is interesting that no such relationship emerged in the present study. The differences in the measures used to assess rationality may account for the inconsistent results.

No significant gender differences were observed with respect to subscription to unreasonable family beliefs. This is consistent with the findings of Roehling and Robin (1986).

With respect to the relationship between demographic data and the extent to which adolescents experience interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral difficulties, as measured by the BPI, analyses revealed that groups differed significantly on only one variable-quality of time spent with parent(s). Adolescents who rated the quality of time spent with parent(s) as being "not satisfactory" demonstrated more pervasive sadness, hopelessness, and disinterest in life (depression) than did those who rated the quality of time as being "good".

In a number of analyses significant differences were not found where one might suspect differences. For example, church attendance of parents as a rough measure of religiosity did not appear to have any relationship to adolescent adjustment. No significant pattern of adjustment appeared with respect to 'sex', although a significant main effect was observed.

Despite the fact that a study by Dornbusch, Carlsmith, Bushwell, Ritter, Leiderman, Hastorf, and Gross (1985) reported that the proportion of deviant adolescents was greater among mother-only households than among

households with two natural parents; no significant differences among groups were observed in the present study.

Conger (1977) suggests that adolescents who come from democratic families where they are allowed to participate in discussing issues relevant to their behavior are more self-confident and independent than those from autocratic families. Although the present findings are not inconsistent with Conger (1977) in that a significant main effect was observed, no significant patterns of differences among groups emerged in the sample with respect to "how often the adolescent is allowed to take part in decision-making which affects him/her".

No significant mean differences were observed with respect to "average academic performance" although one might expect that adolescents having grades below 50% would be more likely to have adjustment problems. The finding of a significant main effect however, suggests that more research is needed in this area.

In summary, it was found that adolescents who subscribe more strongly to unreasonable beliefs regarding parenting and family life are generally more likely to experience interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral difficulties. In addition, adolescents who are never and/or rarely allowed to take part in decision-making which affects them are more likely to subscribe to the "unreasonable belief" that parental rules and restrictions will ruin the teenage years. As well, adolescents who are not satisfied with the time spent with parent(s) are more likely to experience depression, as evidenced by higher scores on the BPI subscale of depression.

Implications of the Study

The results of this study have lent support to Ellis' contention that emotional upset and disturbed interpersonal interactions and self-defeating behavior are primarily a result of irrational or illogical interpretations of objective reality. For example, in the present study it was observed that adolescents who saw parental rules and restrictions as having the potential to ruin their teenage years were more likely to consider themselves inadequate and be listless, remote, and preoccupied.

The results also suggest that the relationship between rationality and emotional adjustment is applicable to this adolescent sample. Admittedly this research sample was largely composed of 15 and 16 year olds, and as such it is necessary that future investigations sample a wider age range of adolescents so as to further clarify research results which suggest that endorsement of irrational beliefs is a function of age (Lee and Halberg, 1979; Spirito and Erickson, 1977).

Due to the fact that this study found support for the existence of a positive relationship between adolescent adjustment problems and subscription to a specific category of unreasonable beliefs - those relating to parenting and family life -, there appears to be a need for mental health professionals working with distressed adolescents to closely examine and address adolescents' perceptions of family variables such as perceived parental control and degree of punishment, and parent-adolescent communication. As well, they need to be aware of the need to examine the mediating role of cognitive distortions in the adolescents' perceptions.

It is important to note that the positive relationship between unreasonable family beliefs and adjustment problems was found to exist within a "normal" high school sample. Admittedly the research sample was not a random sample. However, the means and standard deviations on the FBI and BPI were generally comparable to those reported by Roehling and Robin (1986) for an undistressed adolescent sample, and those reported by Holden et al. (1983) for an Alberta high school sample. While the generalizability of the findings must be cautioned, they are significant. As a result, they do imply a need for further investigation within educational settings . With the institution of the new Alberta Health curriculum, researchers are provided with an excellent setting in which to assess and address adolescent cognitions regarding parent-adolescent relations. This type of investigation becomes particularly important in light of the fact that in many rural Albertan communities, the school is an important source of support and aid for distressed adolescents and their families. Researchers such as Haynes, Marx, Martin, Wallace, Merrick, and Einarson (1983) suggest that Rational-Emotive Education programs can be carried out by teachers and school counselors with a minimum amount of training, and have shown promising results with a number of adolescent populations. As a result, further investigation in this area could have important benefits for school populations.

While the FBI shows promise as a tool for measuring change and dysfunction in an adolescent population, the present study did raise some question as to whether the individual belief scales of ruination, unfairness, and autonomy are variations on several broad themes or are related but separate dimensions of cognitive content. As well, the correlation coefficients obtained

in this study suggest that the belief scale of approval does not, to the same extent, appear to be measuring what the other belief scales are. For these reasons, more research on the FBI as a reliable and valid measure of cognitive distortions regarding and parenting and family life is definitely needed. Perhaps a promising endeavor would be to use the FBI in a research study which addressed the issue of causality, that is, does subscription to unreasonable or irrational family beliefs cause and maintain poor adjustment or vice versa? While it is virtually impossible to demonstrate a causal relationship, experimental evidence on the validity of a conditional statement of the "If p, then q" kind could be gathered (Kerlinger, 1973). A method of studying such a relationship (if unreasonable beliefs, then poor adjustment) could involve the testing of two groups matched for subscription to unreasonable family beliefs and adjustment at two points in time. Members of each matched pair would be randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. The experimental group would have some form of treatment aimed at altering the belief system such as lectures on rational ideas or a programmed text on rational thinking. The control group would have no treatment between the testing times and would be included so as to partially control for the passage of time and the effects of repeating the measure of adjustment and unreasonable family beliefs. Analysis of covariance could be used to analyze the data (Kerlinger, 1973). If a significantly greater change in subscription to unreasonable or irrational family beliefs was observed in the experimental group it would confirm the efficacy of the treatment. An observance of a significantly greater difference between the measure of adjustment in the experimental than the control group would confirm the influence of a change in

subscription to unreasonable beliefs on adjustment. Although this would not really prove a cause-and-effect relationship, a positive finding could be interpreted as indicating that if the extent of unreasonable family beliefs is manipulated, there will be a predictable likelihood of change in level of adjustment.

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Appendix A

Family Beliefs and Behavior Survey

The study that you are being asked to participate in deals with the relationship of certain family beliefs held by addolescents and their behavior. You are being asked to answer a series of questions as honestly as possible on the accompanying answer sheets. Participation in the study is strictly on a **voluntary** basis and all answers will be **confidential**. You are not required to identify yourself anywhere on the survey. Make your responses by filling in the appropriate place on the answer sheet in **pencil**.

Part One: General Information

1. What is your age?
   a. 14 years.
   b. 15 years
   c. 16 years.
   d. 17 years.
   e. 18 and above.

2. What sex are you?
   a. male.
   b. female.

3. How many children are there in your family counting yourself?
   a. one.
   b. two.
   c. three.
   d. four.
   e. five or more.

4. What birth position do you hold in your family?
   a. first born.
   b. in between.
   c. last born.

5. Which of your parents live at home?
   a. mother only.
   b. father only.
   c. both mother and father.
   d. neither mother or father.

6. How much time would you like to spend with your parent(s)?
   a. much less than now.
   b. a little less than now.
   c. a little more than now.
   d. a lot more than now.

7. How would you rate the quality of time you spend with your parent(s)?
    a. not satisfactory.
    b. fair.
    c. good.
    d. very good.

8. How often do your parent(s) allow you to take part in making decisions which affect you (ie. dating, curfew)?
    a. never.
    b. rarely.
    c. sometimes.
    d. often.
    e. always.

9. How often do your parent(s) attend church?
    a. never.
    b. once or twice a year.
    c. three or four times a year.
    d. once or twice a month.
    e. every week.

10. How many hours per week do you spend in a part-time job?
    a. 0 hours.
    b. less than five hours.
    c. five to ten hours.
    d. eleven to fifteen hours.
    e. sixteen hours or more.

11. How would you rate your **average** academic performance based on the last report?
    a. less than 40%.
    b. 41 to 50%.
    c. 51 to 60%.
    d. 61 to 70%.
    e. 71% and higher.

FAMILY BELIEFS INVENTORY

Adolescent Version

We are interested in understanding how adolescents think about different situations. In order to help us to do this we have created a questionnaire which describes a number of situations that might occur in daily life, each followed by several statements representing people's reactions to the situation.

Please read each situation and imagine that it is happening to you. Rate each statement on the degree to which you would agree with it.Because you may not have had the experiences described in some situations, it is important that you imagine that it is happening to you. Be sure that you don't rate the situation, just rate how much the statement is like the way you would think.

As an example, read the following:

situation: A group of friends invite you to go to a movie with them one evening. Your parents say 'you can not go because you spend too much time away from home.

I. Teenagers should be allowed to do whatever they chose whenever they chose.

How strongly do you agree with this statement:

1 - do not agree at all.
2 - agree very little.
3 - agree a little.
4 - moderately agree.
5 - agree a lot.
6 - mostly agree.
7 - totally agree.

If you moderately agree with the statement you would blacken the circle with the number 4 in the center (E on the attached answer sheet.) Please blacken only those circles numbered 1 through 7. Leave 0, 8, and 9 blank. Choose only one answer for each statement.

Please begin and rate every statement.

Who should be youth's friends:

You have recently gotten to be close with a new friend. The two of you enjoy doing a lot of things together, including going to shopping malls, playing video games, and doing things after school together. Your parents do not like this friend at all. They complain that the friend talks rudely toward them, looks sloppy, skips school, and smokes and drinks. They also accuse your friend of doing other things which they disapprove. Recently, when you and your friend have wanted
to do something together, your parents have dreamed up excuses to keep you home. They want to keep you from seeing this friend. A very unpleasant disagreement took place when you discussed this with them. You are not sure what will happen next.

Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

I2. Parents might occasionally offer advice about an adolescent's choice of friends.

I3. If parents restrict a youth's friends, the youth will end up without any friends.

I4. It is unfair for parents to restrict their teenagers from seeing certain friends.

I5. There are times when parents offer their youths good advice about friends.

I6. It is wrong for teenagers to upset their parents by spending time with friends whom the parents dislike.

I7. Adolescents should be given the freedom to do whatever they chose with whomever they chose.

How money is spent:

You are able to make a small amount of money doing little jobs here and there and enjoy spending it. You spend your money on video games, record albums, concerts, and eating with your friends at places like McDonald's. Your parents, however, disapprove of how you spend your money. They accuse you of spending money as if it were going out of style. They are always telling you to save it or to start buying your own clothing or school supplies. You are really beginning to resent this.

Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

I8. If parents do not approve of how a youth is spending money, the youth should change his/her spending habits.

I9. Parents should encourage their youths to save money for the future.

20. Adolescents should be allowed some freedom in deciding how their money is spent.

2I. It is not fair for parents to tell teenagers how to spend the teenager's own money.

22. Adolescents should be permitted to spend their own money any way they please without parental interference.

23. If teenagers follow parents' suggestions for spending money, they will never get to have any fun or buy nice things.

Being nice to teen's friends:

You have a small group of friends whom you really like. They often telephone you or come over to visit you. You have noticed, however, that your parents are usually unfriendly to them. They accuse you and your friends of invading their privacy and of being loud and making a mess in the house. Your parents won't speak to your friends when they come over and are not nice to them on the phone. You are afraid that if something does not change soon, your friends are going to start feeling uncomfortable about calling or visiting you.

Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

24. Generally, family members should treat each other's friends with courtesy.

25. If parents are rude to a teenager's friends, they will drive all of the friends away.

26. It is totally unfair for parents to be rude to their children's friends.

27. Parents should permit their adolescents' friends to do and say whatever they want when they visit in the home.

28. It is extremely upsetting if a youth's parents don't approve of their friends.

29. When visiting someone else's home, adolescents should be pleasant to their friend's parents.

Spending time away from home:

You have a couple of close friends with whom you spend a lot of time. You stay at each other's house on weekends, hang around together after school, go shopping, and see movies together. Lately, your parents have been asking you to stay home with them more. When you insist on spending time with your friends, you end up getting into an arguement. Your parentsare now talking about limiting the time you spend away from home with friends.

Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

30. There are some experiences which teenagers can better share with their friends than their families.

31. Parents should let their youths decide for themselves how and where to spend free time.

32. Teenagers who spend a lot of time away from home with their friends do not really care about their parents.

33. Youths whose parents make them stay home will stop being asked out and lose the friends that they have made.

34. It is terribly unfair for parents to ask their adolescents to stay home when they could be out having fun with their friends.

35. It is important for teenagers to spend some time with their parents.

Using the telephone:

You get quite a few phone calls from your friends every evening. Often you spend half an hour or more on the phone with each person who calls. Your parents become upset when they catch you spending too much time on the phone. They say that someone may be trying to reach them. You, however, can not imagine who would be trying to call and have a lot ofimportant things to say to your friends. Your parents are trying to limit your phone privileges, but you are resisting.

Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

36. Teenagers should comply with their parent's request to talk less on the phone to avoid angering parents.

37. When someone is expecting a call, the line should be kept free until the call comes in.

38. If parents restrict the time their youth can talk on the phone, no one will ever call or be friendly with the youth.

39. It is unfair for parents to put limits on telephone time.

40. It is reasonable for parents to expect their youth to talk on the phone less than 45 minutes per day.

41.. Youths should be permitted to have their own phones and spend as much time making calls as they please.

Staying out past curfew:

Your social life has really begun to improve. You have been spending many evenings hanging out with your friends or dating. Your parents always tell you to come home too early. Just as you start to have a really good time, it's time to go home. Most of your friends get to stay out later than you. Recently, you have been coming home one-half to one-hour late, or calling your parents at curfew time to request an extension. Your parents are giving you a real hassle about this. When you try to explain your views to them, an arguement starts up.

Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

42. Teenagers whose parents make them come home early will lose all of their friends and be very depressed and lonely.

43. It is very unfair for parents to make teenagers come home earlier than their friends.

44. No matter what, adolescents should never stay out past their curfew because their parents will worry a lot and become upset.

45. Teenagers should be able to come home as late as they wish.

46. It is reasonable for parents to want to know what time their children are going to come home.

47. When teenagers have a good reason to stay out later than planned, it is alright to grant them an extension.

Cleaning one's room:

Your parents nag you daily to clean your room and take care of your belongings. They describe your room as a pig sty and complain about clothes being all over, the bed not made, and records and books being all over. You don't mind living in a messy room, but your parents can't stand even a little mess. This is hard to understand because you're the one who has to live in the room, not your parents. When you do clean your room, then they complain that you did not do a thorough job. You can't seem to win.

Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

48. Youths should be permitted to decide for themselves how clean they want their rooms to be.

49. It is best for adolescents to obey their parent's demands to keep their room clean so that the parents won't get mad.

50. It is terribly unfair for parents to expect teenagers to keep their room as clean as the parents want.

5l. Occasionally parents might permit their youths to have a vacation from cleaning their room.

52. If a teenager keeps the room as neat as parents demand, the parents will soon demand that the teenager start cleaning the whole house, mow the grass, shovel snow, and do all kinds of extra chores.

53. Parents have the right to ask their teenagers to hang up their coats when they come home.

Talking back to parents:

Your parents often accuse you of talking to them in a sarcastic, nasty tone of voice. They are always asking you a lot of nosy questions which you tell them you do not want to answer. You don't feel you are being nasty to them; you are merely being honest. There is no nice way to let your parents know that you don't want to answer their questions.

Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

54. Teenagers should show their parents a certain amount of respect.

55. There are some areas of a teenager's life which are private and should not be shared with their parents.

56. A teenager should be free to say whatever they wish to their parents without being accused of talking back.

57. It is terrible for adolescents to hurt their parent's feelings by talking back.

58. It is not fair for parents to ask teenagers very personal questions and then accuse them of talking back if the teenagers refuse to answer.

59. Teenagers who can not learn to stand up to their parents will be unable to stand up to others when they are adults.

Earning money away from home:

You have an opportunity to get a job at a local party store. The pay is very good. In fact, you'd be making more money than any of your friends. But, you would have to work long hours, and often wouldn't get home until very late. Your parents are afraid that your grades will suffer. Also, they don't like the people that hang out around the party store. You really want the job, but whenever you talk to your parents about it, you end up in an arguement.

Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

60. A job teaches teenagers responsibility.

61. It is important for teenagers to complete high school whether or not they have an after school job.

62. Teenagers are perfectly capable of deciding whether they can handle a job and school without their parents' advice.

63. Parents who stop their teenagers from having part-time jobs are acting unfairly.

64. Teenagers should not upset their parents by wanting to take a job when it is against their parents' wishes.

65. Without a job a teenager will never have the money to have a good time and will end up severly depressed and suicidal.

Helping out around the house:

You have been given the following chores around the house by your parents: cleaning up your room, washing the dishes, taking out the garbage, and helping with the dusting and vacuuming. This is too much work. You complain, but your parents don't listen. You hate chores. They cut into time better spent with your friends. When you do the chores your parents bug you; they say you did a lousy job. You get into a big hassle and argument with your parents about chores.

Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

66. If teenagers have to do a lot of work around the house they will grow up to be dull, stupid, uninteresting bores that no one will like.

67. It is terribly unfair for parents to make teenagers do a lot of work.

68. It is reasonable for parents to expect their youths to do some work around the house.

69. Teenagers should be able to decide for themselves how much work they want to do around the house.

70. It is better to do what parents ask rather than risk them being mad at you.

71. The responsibility for doing chores is something the whole family should share.

Part Three: BPI

Please answer the questions in the accompanying test booklet.